Whole genome duplication and plant macroevolution

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Whole genome duplication (WGD) is characteristic of almost all fundamental lineages of land plants. Unfortunately, the timing of WGD events are loosely constrained and hypotheses of evolutionary consequence are poorly formulated, making them difficult to test. Using examples from across the plant kingdom, we show that estimates of timing can be improved through the application of molecular clock methodology to multigene datasets. Further, we show that phenotypic change can be quantified in morphospaces and that relative phenotypic disparity can be compared in the light of WGD. Together, these approaches facilitate tests of hypotheses on the role of WGD in plant evolution, effecting the potential of plants as a model system for investigating the role WGD in macroevolution.

Whole genome duplication (WGD) encompasses multiple processes that lead to the formation of a polyploid organism with three or more sets of the base chromosome number. It has been invoked as a cause of macroevolutionary change [1], explaining everything from extinction resistance to fundamental evolutionary innovation. WGD has been proposed as a driver of diversity [2, 3], herbivore interactions [4], geographic expansions [5], climatic niche shifts [6] and facilitating lineage longevity [7]. Clustering of WGD events along the K-Pg boundary has led to the hypothesis that genome duplication may have facilitated evolutionary success in the wake of the end Cretaceous mass extinction event [8, 9] (Box 1). Equally though, it is possible that the extensive history of WGD in plant evolution is incidental or inconsequential, and there are examples, such as mosses and horsetails [7, 10], where a macroevolutionary scale phenotypic impact is not

evident. Ancient WGD events (palaeopolyploidy) first appeared rare [11], yet newly sequenced genomes have revealed duplication in an increasing diversity of plant lineages [12, 13]. However, with few exceptions, it appears that most of the hypothesised macroevolutionary outcomes have neither been tested nor formulated as hypotheses that are readily testable, despite the diversity of comparative methods available for facilitating such tests. There are multiple emerging models explaining how complexity and novelty may arise through genome duplication [14], although fundamental questions remain as to why the outcomes of WGD are so disparate among lineages and whether the nature of the ploidy event influences the outcome (Box 2). Tests are needed to quantify the macroevolutionary change in the wake of WGD, or else we risk WGD becoming a phenomenon that explains everything and, therefore, nothing.

WGD has occurred across the breadth of eukaryote phylogeny [15-18], but the majority of WGD events have occurred within land plants (Embryophyta) (Fig 1). As such, plants provide very many natural experiments from which it may be possible to develop a general theory on the role of WGD in macroevolution. Patterns of diversification among extant taxa have pointed towards a scenario of rarely successful polyploids [19, 20]. However, all members of the most diverse lineage of land plants, the seed plants (Spermatophyta), are descended from an ancestor that underwent at least one round of WGD [21, 22]. Furthermore, within Spermatophyta, another WGD is shared by all flowering plants (angiosperms) [21], as well as other shared in turn by several major clades of flowering plants including the monocots [23], eudicots [24, 25], Asteraceae [5, 26], Brassicales [27], legumes [28] and in the most economically important plants, the grasses [29, 30] (Fig 2). The paucity of ancient WGD events that was perceived early in the history of genome sequencing is looking increasingly like an oversight, with denser sampling revealing multiple WGD events during the evolution of taxonomically large and small lineages [6].

Double Dates – the absolute timing of WGD

Hypotheses on the role of WGD in plant macroevolution are contingent on the phylogenetic (relative) and geological (absolute) timing of each event. Methods to identify

WGD events are many and varied: paralog substitution distributions (Ks plots) [31, 32], phylogenomics [21], genome size, karyotype, gene copy number analyses [33, 34], and synteny [23, 35, 36]. Greater sampling of diversity helps resolve the phylogenetic (relative) timing of each WGD, yet to refine these hypotheses it is important that their absolute ages are known with accuracy and precision. Absolute ages can be constrained by the age of bracketing speciation events since WGD must have occurred after the divergence of species that have not undergone genome duplication and before those living species that have (Fig 2). When taxonomic sampling is dense and the WGD occurred on a short branch (such as with more recent events) this can yield relatively precise age estimates [37]. However, with increasing uncertainty in species divergence time estimates, longer branches, monotypic lineages, or less dense sampling, it becomes more challenging to directly estimate the timing of a WGD.

As well as being a means to identify and relatively date WGD events, both Ks analyses and phylogenomic methods can be used to directly infer the age of WGD events [32, 38-40]. Ks plots represent distributions of rates of synonymous substitutions between paralogs. A peak in the distribution is interpreted as a WGD event and distributions compared between species can reveal shared duplication events. An external calibration can convert Ks rates into geological time, though this is often done by comparing the position of the peak in Ks rates to ages inferred from phylogenomic dating, for example a Ks value of 0.6 and 1.1 synonymous substitutions per site corresponds to an age of 50 - 70 million years. These methods assume a strict rate of molecular evolution, and different rates produce highly variable age estimates. The signature of increasingly ancient WGD events is eroded by sequence saturation and so the detection of more ancient events leads to inaccuracy [32]. For example, a WGD event predicted in the early-diverging gymnosperm *Ginkgo biloba* was estimated between 500-700 Ma - predating estimates for the origin of land plants [41-43].

Phylogenomic approaches exploit the signal of paralogy present in the history of gene families to directly estimate the age of the WGD event [21]. This requires the reconstruction of gene families across multiple species (also termed a phylome [44]) and subjecting them to molecular clock analysis. Molecular clock methodology has typically been applied to dating species divergences but can also be used to date both speciation

and duplication events within gene trees. Typically, molecular clock analyses have investigated each gene family in isolation, producing both a topological and temporal estimate of WGD. Molecular clock approaches to dating WGD have either been flawed by the underlying algorithm [45], or when more powerful Bayesian uncorrelated methods have been used, by the limited sampling of taxa and appropriate fossil calibrations [40]. Furthermore, dating individual gene families does not make best use of information available since individual gene families have low statistical power, yielding imprecise, if not inaccurate, estimates of gene and (by inference) genome duplication.

The paralog sets derived from a WGD share the same age and can be combined in a concatenated alignment that is capable of producing far more precise results than any single gene family [46, 47]. Precision of estimated dates are not the sole concern, and is achieved using conservative palaeontological constraints on speciation events [48], alongside clock methods that can model both the uncertainty in the fossil evidence and the variation in rates of evolution between genes [46, 49]. Box 3 shows a schematic analysis of the genome duplication present in the ancestor of all grasses (Rho). This event is evident in the genomes and phylomes of multiple extant grass species which, due to their economic value as food crops, have been well-sampled by sequencing projects [30].

As well as being able to inform on the coincidence of WGD with geological or biogeographic events, these approaches co-estimate the timing of duplication alongside the timing of speciation. This allows us to see how early or late WGD occurred relative to the crown (extant) clade and to directly estimate lag between the WGD event and any hypothesized macroevolutionary consequences [46].

Whole Genomes and Diversification

Diversification is one of the most widely proposed consequences of WGD in plants. This relationship has been explored at multiple levels across angiosperms yet support for a correlation remains equivocal [2, 29, 50, 51]. There is little evidence supporting a direct shift in diversification immediately following WGD. Instead, there is some support for the proposed 'WGD lag-time' model, wherein diversification follows WGD but only after a protracted period of geological time [2]. The lag period has been measured either as a

period of absolute time or as an arbitrary measure of time such as the number of nodes separating a WGD event and a subsequent shift in the rate of diversification. When the age of the duplication event and the subsequent speciation events are co-estimated, the absolute age and duration of the lag can be estimated directly [46]. Estimates for the timing of the angiosperm-specific genome duplication event imply that it occurred 65-35 Myr before the divergence of crown angiosperms (the living clade of flowering plants), closer to 70 Myr before the radiation of the Mesangiospermae and over 100 Myr before a detectable angiosperm radiation in the fossil record [46, 52]. Such an extensive lag raises two questions: Firstly, is it plausible to associate two events that are separated by such a long interval of time? And secondly, why did the early diverging lineages of angiosperms (the ANA grade) not undergo a similar radiation?

Schranz et al. [53] proposed a model in which WGD provides latent evolvability that may be later triggered by a shift in environment and promote diversification. This has been further refined and several new models have emerged to explain the lag phase, some of which are readily testable. Among these is the suggestion that it is not WGD, but the ensuing process of genome fractionation (or diploidisation), that may be responsible for diversification. During this process, the organism undergoes large scale genome rearrangements and redundant gene copies are silenced and excised, leading to potentially novel patterns of expression [54]. Most angiosperm lineages have undergone multiple rounds of WGD and exhibit the fastest rate of genome size evolution among land plants [55], and it has been proposed that their ability to rapidly downsize their genome in the wake of WGD has led to their global dominance [56]. Ferns show a higher rate of genome duplication than angiosperms yet appear not to undergo such extensive genome downsizing and are considerably less diverse than angiosperms [33, 57]. The observed lag between WGD and diversification in angiosperms may be explained by the period of genome fractionation, though the long-term rate of fractionation is uncertain. It seems appropriate to ask whether the extent or rate of genome reorganisation post-WGD correlates with observed shifts in the rate of diversification. The WGD event associated with one of the most dramatic shifts in diversification, the gamma event at the base of eudicots, involved extensive genome reorganization [25, 58]. Speciation post-WGD would

lead to fractionation occurring independently in separate lineages, which could explain the differences between lineages that emerge from WGD [54].

In the specific case of autopolyploidy (duplication involving a single parental lineage) the newly duplicated paralogs can pair randomly at meiosis. This pattern of tetrasomic inheritance facilitates ongoing exchange between paralogous chromosomes and may prevent them from diverging until a state of disomic inheritance is restored [59, 60]. The period required to attain a state of disomic inheritance could also explain the macroevolutionary lag between WGD and phenotypic evolution. As with the duplication-fractionation model, speciation occurring before the restoration of disomic inheritance will result in independent diploidisation of lineages. Robertson et al. [59] demonstrated this 'lineage specific ohnolog resolution' (LORe) model in the descendants of the salmonid fish-specific WGD event and showed that independent diploidization was present in 27% of salmonid paralog. Though untested in plants, its predictions of a long lag period and disparate evolutionary trajectories suggest that it may also fit the patterns observed after the angiosperm-specific WGD.

The case for a general theory of genome duplication as an intrinsic driver of diversification is undermined by the multiple cases where WGD does not accompany any shift in diversity. Non-seed plant lineages, such as palaeopolyploid mosses and horsetails, remain species-poor despite repeated duplications [7, 10]. This can be partly reconciled by the differing rates of genome downsizing and rearrangement exhibited by these clades relative to angiosperms. However, further research on the mechanisms for rapidly altering genome structure are required. Beyond plants and, in particular, among teleost fish, the palaeontological record shows no evidence in support of a role for WGD in directly promoting diversification [61]. There is some evidence supporting a direct role for WGD in promoting diversity in yeasts where reciprocal gene loss can lead to reproductive isolation [62], though on a macroevolutionary scale this effect is small [63].

WGD and Morphological Innovation

The link between WGD and morphological evolution in plants has remained both pervasive and speculative [1, 64]. Some have proposed that polyploids may survive and evolve in

extreme or marginal habitats, allowing them a competitive advantage over their parent species at range margins [65]. However, the range of many extant polyploids does not exceed that of their parents [66], while genes related to stress tolerance appear to have evolved via tandem duplication rather than WGD [67, 68]. The evolution of morphological diversity, like species diversity, may also require a lag phase. For selection to act on innovation, developmental robustness is required [69], and so it is possible that morphological diversification may occur only after a period of developmental lability. At the genetic level, WGD may free a lineage from the constraints of purifying selection and allow genes to take on new functions [1]. At the phenotypic level this may allow the evolution of novel forms and body plans. Indeed, formative innovations within the plant kingdom have been associated with the expansion of families of regulatory genes [70, 71]. Patterns of gene retention post-WGD are not random and in repeated cases genes encoding proteins that function as part of networks and signalling cascades, are retained preferentially [72-74]. This has been explained in terms of dosage balance and the need to maintain stoichiometric ratios of proteins within the cell [75, 76]. The dosage balance hypothesis is exemplified during the diploidisation process in allopolyploids, where exchanges can occur between homoeologous chromosomes of subgenomes [77]. These exchanges can result in novel gene expression and gene copy number [78], but can also result in the deleterious loss of chromosome regions or entire chromosomes. Homoeologous compensation has been proposed as a mechanism to prevent dosage imbalances and has been demonstrated to lead to increased phenotypic variation in newly synthesized allopolyploids [77]. The dosage balance hypothesis does not predict the evolution of morphological diversity until such constraints are relaxed and retained paralogues are selected to evolve new functions [14, 79]. These constraints may relax under different selection pressures although a quantitative model of compensatory drift has also been proposed [80]. Compensatory drift is the process whereby paralogs are initially retained due to dosage sensitivity, but over time expression levels of the individual genes drift until one paralog is free of the dosage-dependent constraint [80]. This model not only provides a mechanism for neofunctionalization to arise from a state of dosage balance, but also a potential explanation for the emergence of evolutionary novelty after prolonged periods of evolutionary time.

It is difficult to ascribe adaptive evolution to WGD, especially with ancient events. The link between WGD and novelty has been elegantly shown in the glucosinolate pathway in Brassicales [4]. This gene family has expanded over several rounds of WGD and is involved in plant-herbivore interactions. It has also been proposed that gene families underpinning floral patterning, expanded during the angiosperm-specific WGD [71]. These genes are implicated in the origin and diversification of the flower, a structure that has shaped recent plant and animal evolution [81]. The evolution of pentamerous flowers in the core eudicots also coincides with a genome triplication (gamma, Fig 1) [25, 82]. The coincidence of the gamma event with this major synapomorphy, a large increase in the rate of diversification, and extensive genome reorganisation [58], makes it a tantalising system in which to investigate the link between WGD and morphological evolution.

Regulatory gene retention and large shifts in patterns of their transcription suggest a role for WGD in the evolution of eudicot floral diversity [82]. In order to make such a hypothesis testable, the increase in phenotypic complexity must be quantified for comparative analysis [83]. To achieve this, we can borrow from palaeontology, which has a strong tradition in comparative analysis of phenotype through multivariate statistics – manifest as "morphospace analyses". The hypothesis that WGD drives innovation would predict that events coincide with either the movement to a new 'island' within morphological design space or a continued expansion of an existing one. These predictions can be tested explicitly with datasets that use discrete morphological characters to describe the traits that unit and distinguish taxa [84]. For example, we can characterise the disparity of extant angiosperms to test the hypothesis that the gamma triplication event coincides with an increase in morphological diversity. To do this we used a morphological dataset that captures the disparity of early angiosperms, basal eudicots and core eudicots [85]. We used these data to calculate the dissimilarity between each taxa, as measured using Gower's dissimilarity metric [86]. To visualise this dissimilarity, we performed non-metric multidimensional scaling, a non-metric ordination method that summarises variation over a specified number of axes – in this instance, two. The result is presented in Figure 3 which shows that the core eudicots occupy a far greater area of morphospace than the basal eudicots. Furthermore, relative to other early diverging lineages of angiosperms, they occupy the largest proportion of morphospace (partial

disparity, Fig 3b). In addition, we subsampled the character matrix for just floral characters, relating specifically to the gamma-derived hypothesis (Fig 3c). The resulting morphospace shows less separation between the lineages, but core eudicots still occupy the largest area and, therefore, exhibits the greatest variation. The construction of a morphospace can be subjective in that it is dependent on the choice of taxa and characters - yet there is strong evidence to suggest that the gamma triplication coincides with the rapid evolution of morphological disparity among eudicots. A comparable analysis of the impact of WGD in Pines finds support for increased variance in morphospace occupation, but gross uncertainty in the estimate of the timing of WGD relative to the age of the disparate clade undermines the hypothesis of a causal link (Box 4).

Quantifying morphological evolution across multiple lineages will be instrumental to understanding the role of WGD in the evolution of phenotypic complexity. The inclusion of fossil taxa and recent methods used to estimate disparity through time may allow us to measure the tempo of morphological evolution post-WGD. The impact of key innovations that are attributed to WGD can be tested by considering their impact on the shape of a morphospace or whether the innovation has resulted in diversification. A further question arises as to what degree WGD is essential for the appearance of major innovations. For example, the origin of seed and flowering plants coincides with a WGD event yet, arguably, a greater number of characters unite the vascular plants whose origin was independent of any known WGD events [87]. While it is plausible that saltational evolution has been effected by WGD in the plant kingdom [88], phenotypic complexity may also arise through the evolution more nuanced trans- and cis-acting regulation [89].

Concluding remarks

WGD is associated with a macroevolutionary outcome in some, but not all lineages, and it remains unclear how and why is this the case. As the number of identified WGD events in plant evolutionary history increases, there is an ever-growing need for a general theory on the role of WGD in macroevolution. However, in order to establish whether WGD is a class of event with characteristic and predictable outcomes, further work is needed in order to place, both relatively and absolutely, each event in time. There are many outstanding

questions to be answered, but a precise temporal framework forms the basis for tests that can quantify any macroevolutionary consequences and inform and refine hypotheses about the relationship between WGD, diversification, and morphological evolution. Plants are the best system in which to elucidate the effects of WGD because of the prevalence of these genomic events in plant phylogeny. This will be crucial as we seek to explain the consequences beyond any single event and, given the role that genome duplication has had in the evolution of many crop species, being able to make general predictions about the outcome of WGD is of critical interest.

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Box 1. **WGD and K-Pg**

The distribution of WGD events both across the plant phylogeny and through time has revealed that in multiple independent lineages WGD events appear to cluster along the K-Pg boundary (Fig 1). This has led to two related hypotheses: that genome duplication may have conferred an 'extinction resistance' to certain lineages of plants, and that polyploid genomes may have allowed surviving lineages to rise to dominance in the wake of the mass extinction.

Polyploid plants are sometimes found towards the edge of species ranges and polyploid genomes facilitate rapid radiations and invasiveness. Polyploid genomes also possess a 'mutational robustness' relative to diploids which may provide short term advantages which may have allowed them to survive and then thrive. An alternative hypothesis suggests that it is not WGD itself that facilitated extinction resistance, but the coincidence that many newly formed polyploids rely on selfing to reproduce. Selfing is also associated with extreme of novel habitats, but in the long term is seen as an evolutionary dead end. A return to outbreeding could allow the continued success of these lineages and may also explain the apparent lag between WGD and diversification.

These hypotheses are entirely dependent on the precise timing of each duplication event. As shown in Figure 2, current estimates for the timing of WGD is likely to change given a careful appraisal of the fossil record. As such, until each WGD event that lies close to the boundary is considered, this correlation should be treated with caution.

Box 2. **The Origins of WGD**

Traditionally, polyploids are recognised as originating from a single parent species (autopolyploidy, xx to xxxx) or from two hybridising species (allopolyploidy, xx + yy to xxyy). Current views maintain that these two outcomes exist along a spectrum, with segmental allopolyploids containing paralogs that display varying levels of synteny [77]. A segmental allopolyploid may form via hybridisation between two closely related species, or through the process of homoeologous compensation [77]. Despite potential differences in outcome, both are likely to have had significant effects throughout plant evolution (both processes and their potential evolutionary outcomes have recently been reviewed here: [97-99]. Based on observations from neopolyploids, there is reason to believe that their outcomes may differ, and so it is a priority to establish whether ancient events were a consequence of autopolyploidy or allopolyploidy. Methods to differentiate between the two processes are developing, and in some instances ancient events have been successfully characterised. Genome dominance is a phenomenon observed in allopolyploids, where one subgenome shows lower expression and retention than the other (biased fractionation). Signal of a bias in gene retention between subgenomes could provide evidence for allo- rather than autopolyploidy [100]. Gene tree methods are also capable of resolving allopolyploid WGDs by considering reticulate patterns of gene tree evolution [17, 101] and in some instances they have been able to identify the most likely parental lineages involved in the hybridization event [102].

The nature of WGD impacts on the approach required for dating as both auto- and allopolyploidy present different issues. The two subgenomes of an allopolyploid would have diverged at the point of speciation between the two parent lineages, rather than the hybridisation event itself [50, 103]. Successful and viable hybrids are more likely to arise between closely related species, giving rise to ‘segmental allopolyploids’. However, there are examples within plants of hybridisation between distantly related lineages [104], which

could lead to a significant overestimation of the age of the WGD. Similarly, as outlined previously, autopolyploidy can lead to a prolonged period of tetrasomic inheritance between ohnologs [59]. In this case there is the potential to underestimate the age of the WGD, as the ohnologs will only start to diverge once disomic inheritance has occurred, and we date the point at which they diverge rather than duplicate.

Box 3. ***Dating whole genome duplication in grasses***

Syntenic and phylogenomic evidence points towards a WGD event in the ancestor of all extant grasses (Poaceae) [23, 30]. The Rho event has previously been dated through phylogenetic bracketing to ~ 70 Ma [90] and is one of the numerous plant WGDs hypothesised to approximate the K-Pg boundary [91]. We sampled the gene families previously shown to retain the signal of the Rho duplication (Fig 2.1) and concatenated them into an alignment (Fig 2.3). Fossil evidence constrains the minimum age on speciation nodes, and in some cases can be used to apply 'soft' maxima [92] (Fig 2.2). The Late Cretaceous fossil phytolith taxon *Changii indicum* is assigned to the crown group (i.e. the living clade) of the Oryzeae tribe and provides a minimum age of 66 Ma based on radiometric dating [93-95]. This fossil placement of this fossil is contentious and can be instead used to calibrate the BOP+PACMAD clade of grasses [95]. We applied further fossil constraints and, combined with the concatenated alignment, these calibrations inform a Bayesian molecular clock analysis performed on the fixed topology of McKain *et al.* in MCMCTREE [96]. The results predict that the WGD took place in the 97 to 85 mya, and in this case is not compatible with the hypothesis that this event coincides with the K-Pg boundary (Fig 2.5).

Box 4. **Duplication and Disparity in the Conifers**

Some explosive genome duplication events, such as that associated with the Core Eudicots, coincide with rapid diversification and an increase in morphological variation. However, many WGD events in species-poor lineages and are not closely associated with macroevolutionary phenomenon. Most conifers are thought to have undergone at least two rounds of WGD during their evolution, one shared among seed plants and then two lineage-specific events on the branches leading to Pinaceae and Cupressophytes [22].

Preliminary analyses of diversity and disparity in the pines indicates a rapid increase in morphological variance during the late Jurassic and Early Cretaceous [83] and Pinaceae occupies a highly distinct area of morphospace (Fig 4). This provides some corroborative support for the hypothesis that WGD has resulted in morphological variation among conifers during their early evolution. However, the age of the pine WGD is currently estimated between 342 and 200 Ma [22] (Fig 4); with so much uncertainty it is not presently possible to link WGD to the shift in morphological disparity. This example highlights the need to employ methods that can accurately and precisely estimate the timing of WGD events as a temporal framework is essential for testing macroevolutionary hypotheses [46].

Glossary

Homologs, Paralogs and Ohnologs – Two genes related by descent with, typically, similar sequences are **homologs**. If they share a 1:1 relationship between species, they are **orthologs**. If they deviate from this 1:1 relationship due to a duplication event, they become **paralogs.** Paralogs that have derived specifically from a WGD event are termed **ohnologs**, after Susumu Ohno.

Neofunctionalisation – Following gene duplication, one copy of the gene takes on a novel function while the other continues to perform the previous function.

Subfunctionalisation – Following gene duplication, each duplicate performs part of the original function, and in combination both maintain the original function of the gene.

Diploidisation – Sometimes termed fractionation, this is the period following WGD whereby through rearrangement, silencing and loss of DNA, the genome returns to a diploid expression pattern.

Genomic shock – A period of heightened activity in the genome, including rearrangement and transposable element activity, immediately following hybridisation.

Morphospace – An n-dimensional multivariate space describing phenotypes, where points represent taxonomic units and the distances between them their (dis)similarities.

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Figure 1. The distribution of known WGD events within the plant kingdom. Most events are shown from Van de Peer *et al.* [91] but have been updated. The length of each bar along the branch indicates the current estimate for its age. Duplication events of unknown origin are shown in navy blue, triplications in red, known autopolyploidy events in yellow and allopolyploidy events in green. The white bar associated with Caryophyllales represents 26 independent WGD events, some of which are autopolyploidy and some allopolyploidy. Named duplication events are shown alongside their greek letter.

Figure 2. Dating WGD by combining genomics and the fossil record. 1) the history of WGD is present in individual gene families. Taxa A and B have undergone a shared duplication event, which taxon C has not. 2) The timing of the duplication is bracketed by the timing of the divergence of A and B and the divergence of A+B and C. These divergence times can be calibrated using distributions between minimum and soft maximum ages. 3) Multiple gene families with a shared signal of WGD can be concatenated to maximise the precision of the analysis. 4) Accuracy is achieved through a careful appraisal of the fossil record and by modelling uncertainty through soft maximum ages [46, 94]. 5) A Bayesian molecular clock analysis reveals that the grass duplication (Rho) occurred 85-97 Ma (95% HPD).

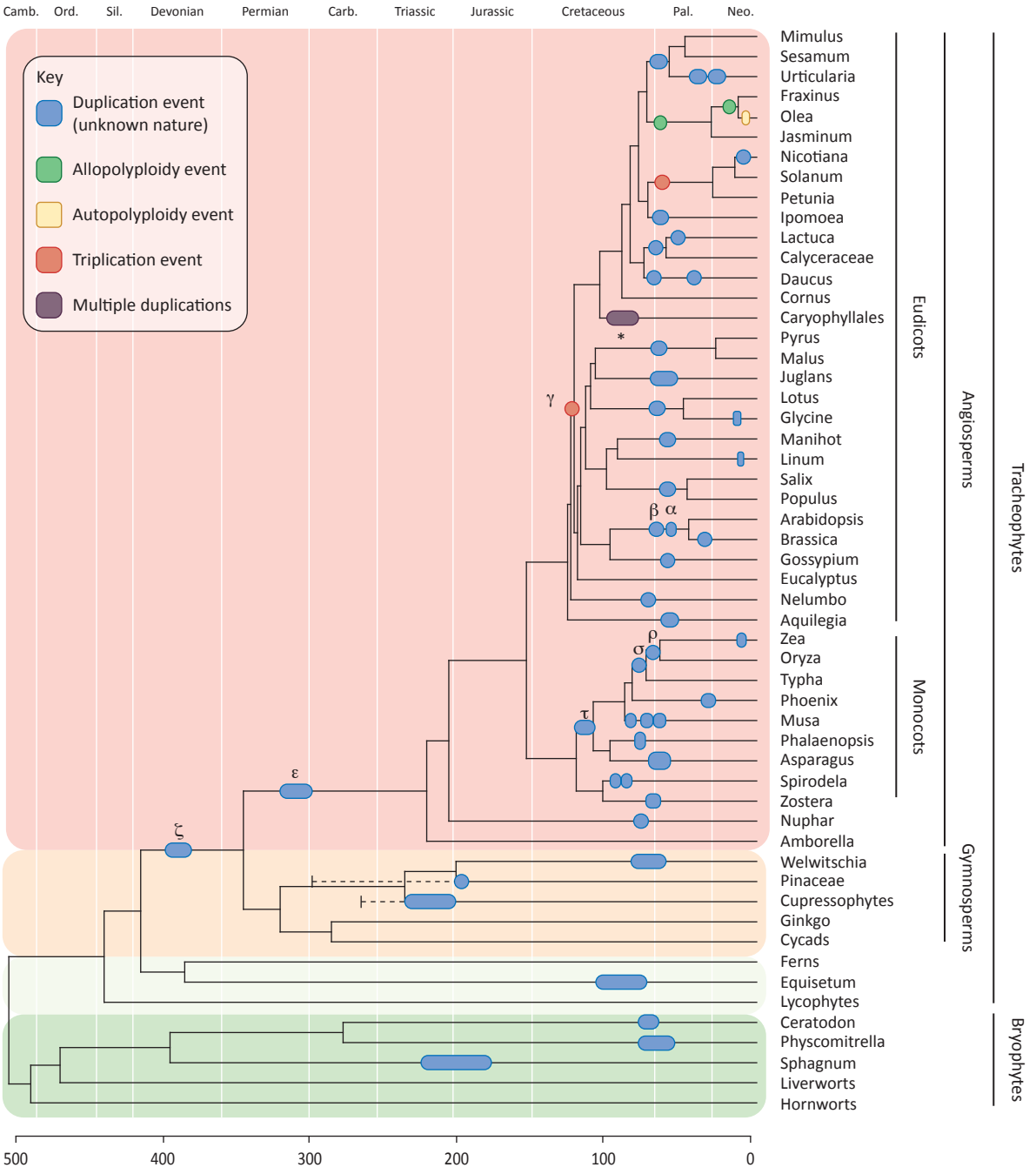
Figure 3. Morphological evolution in the wake of the gamma triplication which occurred before the evolution of the Core Eudicots. A) an empirical morphospace based on a morphological matrix [85]. Morphological characters form the basis of a distance matric (Gower's Index) which is subjected to non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) to display variation in two axes. A consensus phylogeny is mapped onto the morphospace. B) the contribution to total disparity (partial disparity) of each clade calculated from distance

matrix (1000 bootstrap replicates) [105]. C) A morphospace constructed from the floral characters. Major trends in floral evolution are displayed next to the lineages, with spiral phyllotaxis present in early angiosperms, the dimerous flowers common among basal eudicots and the pentamerous flower that is associated with the core eudicots.

Box 4 Figure 1. Morphological evolution in the Pinaceae. An empirical morphospace of Pinaceae and relatives built from morphological characters [106] which formed the basis of a distance matrix (Gower's Index) that was subjected to NMDS. A consensus phylogeny is mapped onto the morphospace. The uncertainty of both the relative (phylogenetic) and absolute timing of the event limits our understanding of the consequences since the position of the Gnetales remains contentious and the current estimate for the age of the WGD spans over 100 Myrs.

Outstanding questions

- Questions remain about the absolute timing of many of the identified WGD events among plants – of particular interest in the clustering of events around the K-Pg boundary
- The origin of duplication events is important – it has implications for both the timing and evolutionary consequences
- Is morphological evolution accelerated in the wake of WGD and what impact has WGD had on the plant morphospace?
- Disparate outcomes between lineages, in terms of morphology and diversity, still require investigation


Camb.
Ord.
Sil.
Devonian
Permian
Carb.
Triassic
Jurassic
Cretaceous
Pal.
Neo.
Key
Duplication event (unknown nature)
Allopolyploidy event
Autopolyploidy event
Triplication event
Multiple duplications
Mimulus
Sesamum
Urticularia
Fraxinus
Olea
Jasminum
Nicotiana
Solanum
Petunia
Ipomoea
Lactuca
Calyceraceae
Daucus
Cornus
Caryophyllales
Pyrus
Malus
Juglans
Lotus
Glycine
Manihot
Linum
Salix
Populus
Arabidopsis
Brassica
Gossypium
Eucalyptus
Nelumbo
Aquilegia
Zea
Oryza
Typha
Phoenix
Musa
Phalaenopsis
Asparagus
Spirodela
Zostera
Nuphar
Amborella
Welwitschia
Pinaceae
Cupressophytes
Ginkgo
Cycads
Ferns
Equisetum
Lycophytes
Ceratodon
Physcomitrella
Sphagnum
Liverworts
Hornworts
γ
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Eudicots
Monocots
Angiosperms
Gymnosperms
Tracheophytes
Bryophytes
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400
300
200
100
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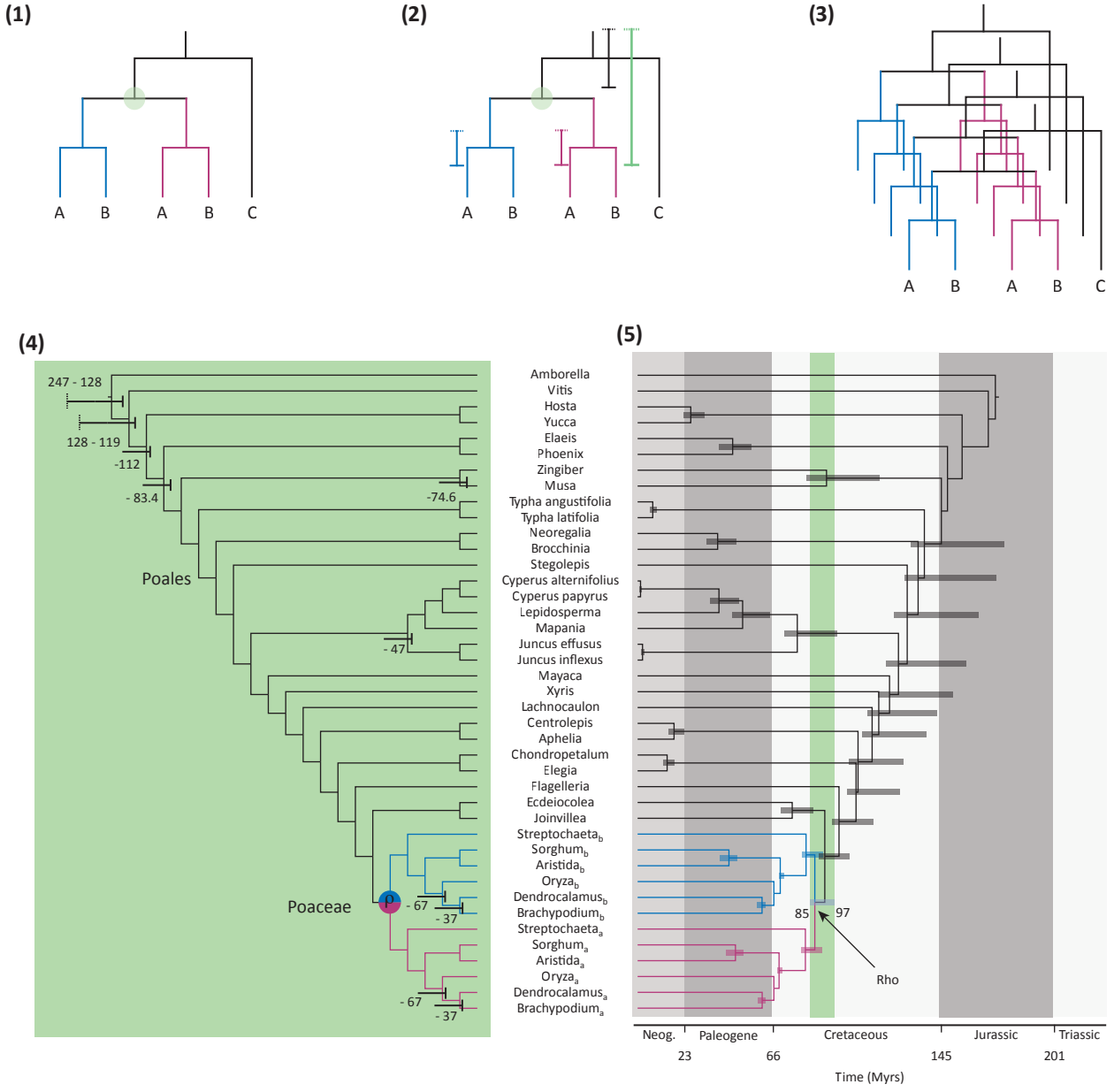
(1)
A
B
A
B
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B
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B
C
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A
B
A
B
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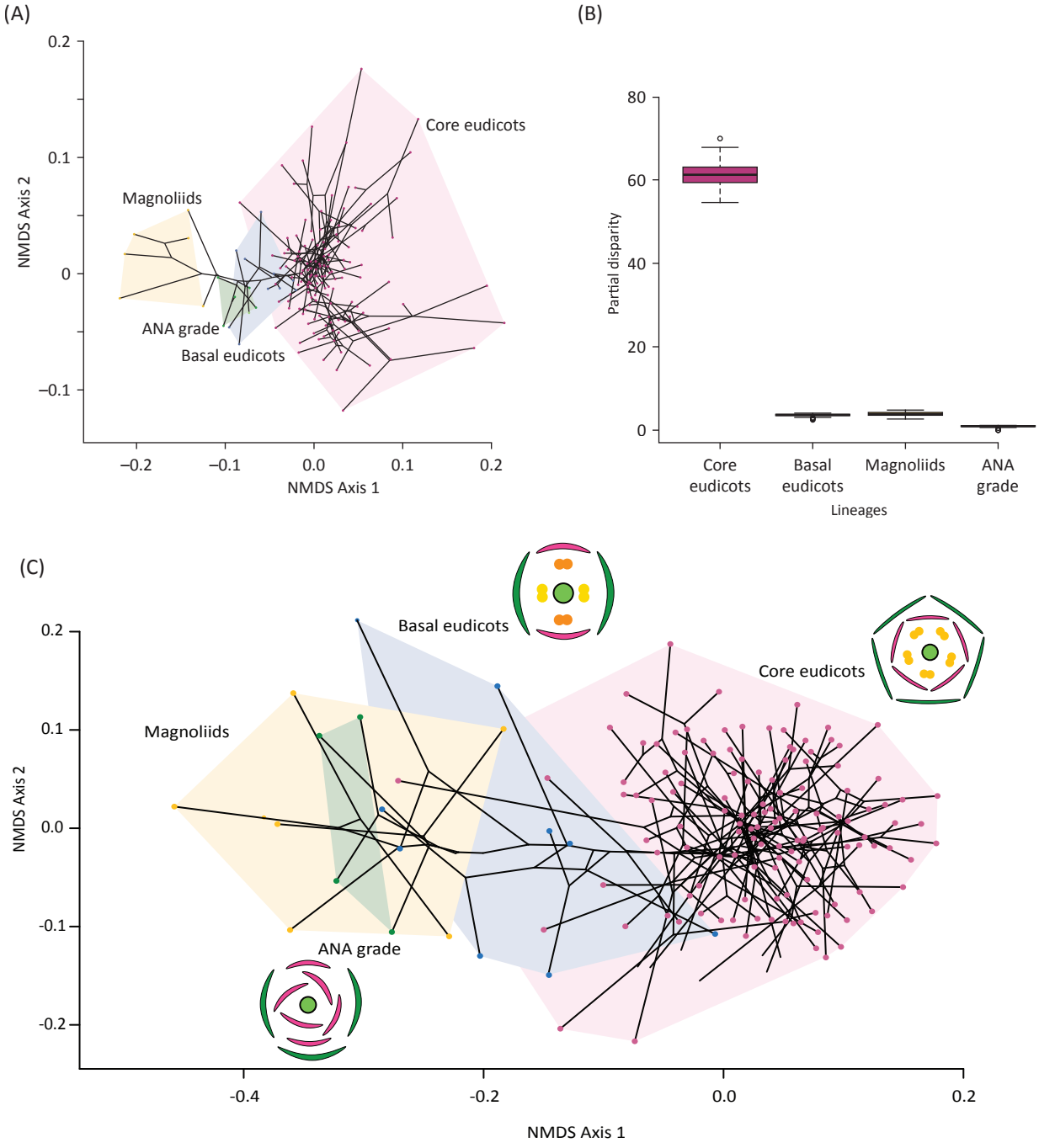
(4)
247 - 128
128 - 119
-112
- 83.4
-74.6
Poales
- 47
Poaceae
- 67
- 37
- 67
- 37
(5)
Amborella
Vitis
Hosta
Yucca
Elaeis
Phoenix
Zingiber
Musa
Typha angustifolia
Typha latifolia
Neoregalia
Brocchinia
Stegolepis
Cyperus alternifolius
Cyperus papyrus
Lepidosperma
Mapania
Juncus effusus
Juncus inflexus
Mayaca
Xyris
Lachnocaulon
Centrolepis
Aphelia
Chondropetalum
Elegia
Flagelleria
Ecdeiocolea
Joinvillea
Streptochaeta$_b$
Sorghum$_b$
Aristida$_b$
Oryza$_b$
Dendrocalamus$_b$
Brachypodium$_b$
Streptochaeta$_a$
Sorghum$_a$
Aristida$_a$
Oryza$_a$
Dendrocalamus$_a$
Brachypodium$_a$
85
97
Rho
Neog.
Paleogene
Cretaceous
Jurassic
Triassic
23
66
145
201
Time (Myrs)


(A)
Core eudicots
Magnoliids
ANA grade
Basal eudicots
NMDS Axis 2
NMDS Axis 1
0.2
0.1
0
−0.1
−0.2
−0.1
0.0
0.1
0.2
(B)
Partial disparity
80
60
40
20
0
Core eudicots
Basal eudicots
Magnoliids
ANA grade
Lineages
(C)
Basal eudicots
Core eudicots
Magnoliids
ANA grade
NMDS Axis 2
NMDS Axis 1
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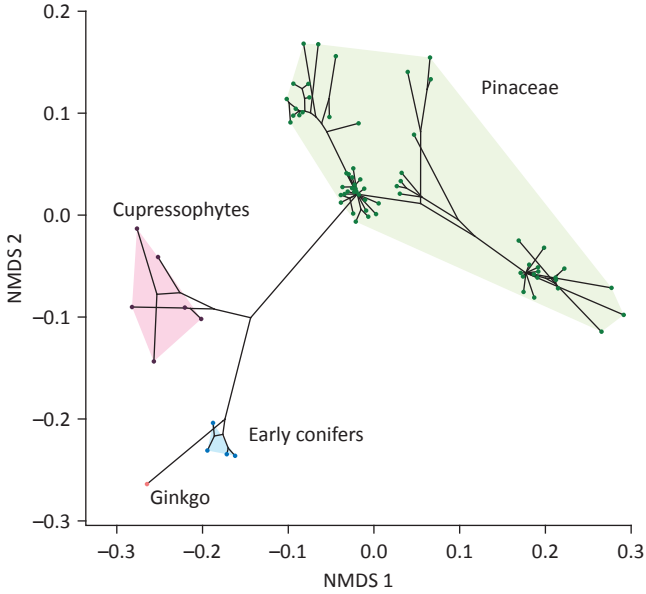
0.2
0.1
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NMDS 2
−0.3
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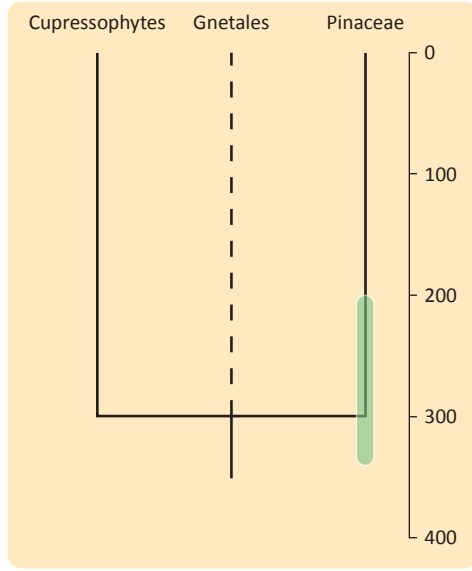
NMDS 1
Pinaceae
Cupressophytes
Early conifers
Ginkgo


Cupressophytes
Gnetales
Pinaceae
0
100
200
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